●128, 113

[For information pertaining to literary devices and conventions, abbreviations and explanations of numerations used by the author, see 6: Spate AW1 India, category 116, pp. xxi-xxiii, and xxv.]

[P. iii]

PREFATORY NOTE.

FOR the benefit of those who have not seen the first article of this series of notes on some of the people of Malabar, I wish to repeat that it is an "attempt to describe the people as they actually are, and not as they are supposed to be in the books on Hinduism, which, for the most part, tell us of *Hinduism as it is not* in Southern India. Books have not been consulted or used anywhere, except where the fact has been notified." It is a product of original work during three years and a half spent in Malabar. My thanks are offered to the many gentlemen, natives of Malabar, who have in the kindest manner helped me—Mr. M. Krishnan (Malayalam Translator to Government), Messrs. O. Vasava Menon, C. P. Raman Menon, U. Balakrishnan Nâyar, M. Raman Menon, T. K. Gopal Panniker, T. Kannan, Achutan Nâyar, and many others. Also I have to thank Mr. Badcock of Tellicherry for assistance. The proofs have been through the hands of several Nâyars, and every precaution has been taken to ensure accuracy of facts.

[1901.] F. FAWCETT.

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*564 from those of the average Nâyar; also how the averages compare with the Nambûtiri.

But, before doing this, we will exclude the endogamous
141 clans—the Ùrâli (wholly endogamous) and the Vattakkâd
*564 (partly endogamous), and take the averages of all the
●128 others. It will be observed that exclusion of these two, who are each units apart from each other, and the first from all the others here dealt with, leaves the averages of all those who intermingle much the same as before, when the Ùrâli and Vattakkâd were included. It cannot be said that exclusion of these two bring the measures of the others any nearer to those of the Nambûtiri, whose blood is in constant process of mixture with the others, but not at all with the Úrâli and not much with the Vattakkâd. It must, however, be remembered that there are about 39 Nâyars to every Nambûtiri in Malabar, and that the latter does not waive his opportunities to disperse his favours amongst the Nâyar ladies.

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*564 The Úrâli and the Vattakkâd are not the only clans wholly or partly endogamous, but they are the only clans wholly or partly endogamous which have been examined thoroughly by me. The Attikkurissi clan is also endogamous, and there may be others.

[625] *Note.*—Individuals in the constabulary are excluded from all the tables, their measures being as a matter of course above the averages for their caste or clan.

	Averages of 136 Nâyars, Vattakkâd and Úrâli excluded.
Stature	165·7
Height, sitting	85·1
Do. kneeling	122·7
Span	175·3
Chest	80·4
Shoulders	40·0
Left cubit	46·2
Left hand, length	18·6
Do. width	8·0
Left middle finger...	10·9
Hips	25·9
Left foot, length	25·5
Do. width	8·8
Cephalic length	19·3
Do. width	14·1
Do. index	72·9

6:Fawcett G-5 (ca. 1900)1915
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Nayar

VATTAKKÂD NÂYARS.

There is some obscurity in the sub-divisions of this clan. To the north of Calicut, in Kurumbranâd, they are divided into the Undiâtuna, or "those who pull" (to work the oil machine by hand) and the "Muri-Vechchu-â tune," or "those who tie or fasten bullocks" (to work the oil machine by means of bullocks and not by hand); yet farther north, Tellicherry and thereabouts there are no known sub-divisions; while in Ernâd, to the eastward, these names are quite unknown, and the clan is divided into the "Veluttâtu," the White, and the "Karuttâtu," the Black. It has been remarked already (page 82) that the Vattakkâd (those who turn round) are not always admitted to be true Nâyars. In the extreme north of Malabar they are called Vaniyan—oil monger. The "White" have nothing to do with expression and preparation of oil, which is the hereditary occupation of the Black. The "White" may eat with Nâyars of any clan; the Black can eat with no others outside their own clan. The Black sub-clan is strictly endogamous. The other, the superior sub-clan, is not. Their woman may marry with men of any other clan, the Pallichchan excepted. But not *vice versâ*. The men must marry within their own sub-clan. I think, but am not sure a man of this clan may marry a woman of the Pallichchan clan; but even if such an alliance is permissible anywhere, I do not think it ever takes place. It may be taken as accurate that men of the clan always marry within their own sub-clan, and that women of the superior sub-clan very often mate with Nâyars of superior clans.

In taking the measures I made no distinction between the sub-clans; it was only just before completion that the existence of the sub-clans was discovered. Had the important fact been discovered earlier, the sub-clans would have been separated. Though scarcely enough for scientific accuracy, it is tolerably certain that most, if not all, of those examined were of the superior sub-clan, which is exogamous as regards the women. The inferior section of the clan—the Black—is not to be found north of the Korapuzha river in North Malabar. One quarter of my subjects were measured in North Malabar—Cannanore, Tellicherry, Badagara; and for the rest, in some cases it is noted that the individuals are of the superior section. This accounts pretty correctly for rather more than half. I am tolerably certain that the other half also belonged to it.

K.M.Panikkar I-4, 5 (no date) 1918 AWII Kerala AWII Nayar

SOME ASPECTS OF NĀYAR LIFE.

By K. M. Panikkar.

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Note.—I have not attempted here to write anything like a detailed study of the Social Life and Customs of the Nāyars. My purpose in this Essay has been mainly to put together a few facts which do not seem to have been sufficiently dealt with by previous writers. It is therefore offered rather as supplementary notes than as an original contribution.

I have everywhere depended upon my own observations as to matters of detail. Wherever I have ventured either to suggest new interpretations or to question old theories my authorities generally are eighteenth-century Malayalam poets, who describe the Nāyar Society of the time with great accuracy and detail. My debt to various anthropological classics is evident, and I have acknowledged it everywhere in footnotes.

I.—Introductory.

The Nāyar country extends traditionally from Gokarnam to Cape Camorin along the littoral of the Arabian Sea. The geographical position of the country is very important. The Western Ghats, which extend from near Bombay down to Cape Camorin, attain near the Malabar country the character of a mountain range studded

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Preface

THE TECHNO-ECONOMIC Survey of Kerala, conducted at the request of the State Government of Kerala, is one of the last few in the series of Techno-Economic Surveys of the various States of India undertaken by the National Council of Applied Economic Research. For some time past this small State has been attracting increasing attention of the public. Although Kerala has come into limelight on account of its political turmoils, the basic problems which the State faces are primarily economic in nature. The acute intensity of its unemployment aggravated by increased population pressure, the relatively lower per capita income of the people of the State, and highly limited scope for extension of cultivable area, pose a challenging task for the economic planners.

The main objective of the Techno-Economic Survey of Kerala, as in the case of similar surveys for other States, has been to assess technically feasible and economically viable potential for growth in the different sectors of the State economy over the coming decade. The first step towards this objective was to prepare an outline of the present structure of the economy and make an assessment of the existing physical and human resources of the State. A team of economists and technical experts was constituted for this purpose. The preliminary work on the project was started early in 1960. Relevant data were collected and the members of the survey team discussed the problems and potentialities in different fields, with a number of knowledgeable persons in the State. A number of working papers dealing with problems and potentialities in respect of various aspects of the economy were also prepared. Technical Appraisal Reports analysing growth potential in different sectors were then prepared by the technical members of the team.

The Preliminary Economic Report was ready by September 1961 and it was sent to the State Government for comments. The final report as printed here brings together the material contained in the working papers and the Appraisal Reports. The Appraisal Reports contain a detailed technical analysis of each of the major fields of development, e.g., Industry, Power, Transport, etc. The Economic Report, on the other hand, aims at presenting a broad and coordinated picture of the outline of the probable growth of the State Economy. It indicates the main lines along which future development of the State should proceed and highlights the strategy required for achieving a rapid growth of the State economy.

The economy of Kerala is marked by a number of distinctive features. It is the most thickly populated State in India with an average density per square mile being over three times the all-India average. In addition, the rate of growth of population has been noticeably higher in Kerala than in the other parts of India. A high density of population combined with a fast growth of population has been responsible

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survey carried out in Kerala on the eve of the Second Plan period. According to this survey, 6.3 lakh persons, that is, 4.2 per cent of the total population were openly unemployed while another 15.2 lakhs (5.2% of the population) were under-employed. This is, indeed, a very high degree of unemployment when compared with the corresponding all-India proportion of 0.58 per cent for the openly unemployed and 6 per cent for the under-employed.

1.58 There is some evidence to show that the level of unemployment has been rising steeply over the past few decades. Between the Census of 1931 and that of 1951 the participation rate slumped down from 48 per cent to 36.1 per cent. Although the difference in concepts used in the two Census operations exaggerates the extent of decline, it does convey some idea of the fast deterioration in the unemployment situation over the years.

1.59 Unemployment on this scale is the outcome of a high rate of population growth, unaccompanied by economic growth at a correspondingly fast rate. In spite of a large section of the population being engaged in non-agricultural activities, the rate of expansion of employment opportunities in this sector has been very low, and the pressure on agricultural sector has been constantly increasing. In the 20 years, between 1931 and 1951, according to the Census data, the proportion of population dependent upon agriculture increased from 34.2 per cent to 53.8 per cent.

1.60 The approach to the problem of unemployment has got to be two-sided. Measures to curb the rate of growth of population form one aspect of the solution. The second and the more important weapon is to accelerate the pace of industrial development so as to diversify the pattern of growth and, thus, reduce an excessive dependence on the agricultural sector. It is with this aim in view that the following chapters attempt to assess the resources available and to explore the development possibilities in each sector of the economy during the coming decade.

SOME RECENT TRENDS

1.61 Planned economic development, as in the rest of the country, was initiated in the State during the early years of the last decade. The First Plan of the State covered only the Travancore-Cochin region since Malabar was merged to from Kerala only after the end of the First Plan. The outlay for the First Plan was Rs. 30.03 crores. On a per capita basis the public sector outlay during the First Plan came to Rs. 32.2 per head (all-India Rs. 55). During the Second Plan, the reorganized State was allotted Rs. 87 crores. The total outlay came to about Rs. 97 crores if Central investment in the State be also included. On per capita basis, again, public sector outlay in Kerala was considerably behind the all-India figure (Kerala: Rs. 64 per head ; all-India: Rs. 118).

1.62 Year to year estimates of growth of the State Income are not available for the last decade. This lacuna makes it difficult to assess the overall impact of the Plans on the whole economy. However, a very rough estimate has been made for growth of the State Income between 1956 and 1961 and the estimates are given in the following table.

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capacity increased from 89.6 MW to only 100 MW during the Second Plan period. Total availability of electrical energy increased from 347.1 million kWh (1955-56) to 515 million kWh (1958-59) mainly through an increase in the load factor.

1.66 Tertiary incomes generally grow at about the same pace as the commodity output, that is, output of the primary and secondary sector combined. Tertiary income is assumed to have risen at 13.7 per cent, the same as the State Income. On these premises projections for sectoral increase in the State Income (at 1955-56 prices) of Kerala have been given in table under paragraph 1.62. State income is expected to have increased by 13.7 per cent but most of this rise has been absorbed by the increase of population. Consequently the per capita income at constant prices is likely to have arisen from Rs. 234.4 (1955-56 prices) to only Rs. 240.7 in 1960-61.

1.67 This has been rather a slow rate of development. Obviously Kerala needs a higher rate of growth, much bigger plans that would generate it, and a strategy of development that would ensure it These aspects are considered and discussed in the chapters that follow. The picture which emerges out of the aggregation of sectoral plans is discussed in Chapter 12 dealing with the pattern of growth.

intensity of cropping since the area covered by perennial crops, which is quite large in the case of Kerala, is irrelevant from the point of view of double or triple cropping. It will thus be seen that not only is the proportion of cultivable area to total area high in Kerala, but the degree of utilization of the cultivated area is also quite high.

FIELD CROPS

2.12 The techniques of cultivation as well as the economics of field crops differ widely from that of commercial plantation crops. The field crops are generally characteristic of the subsistence economy whereas the latter are largely market-oriented. Moreover, unlike field crops the plantation crops are perennial and do not require annual repetition of preliminary agricultural operations like ploughing, sowing, etc. The returns too vary widely. Field crops and plantations are, therefore, discussed separately in the pages that follow.

Cropping Pattern and Yields of Field Crops

2.13 Rice, the most important field crop, occupies a prominent place in the agricultural economy of Kerala. In 1958-59, it covered 1.9 million acres out of 2.7 million acres under field crops. The production of rice in the same year was 939,000 tons. While the rice acreage fell by only 0.4 per cent during 1951–59, its production during the same period leapt up by over 31 per cent. Increase in the yield rate during the same period was from 829 to 1,108 lbs. per acre (Table 11).[2] The growing appreciation among farmers of the utility of fertilizers, improved seeds and better techniques of cultivation is largely responsible for this steady improvement.

2.14 Next to rice, tapioca is the most important field crop of Kerala. During 1951–59, the area under the crop increased from 506,000 acres to 553,000 acres, that is by 11 per cent. The production of tapioca in 1958-59 was 1.5 million tons, that is, an increase of 4.6 per cent over 1950-51.

2.15 Tapioca and rice considered together, account for over 54 per cent of the net sown area which is the same as 90 per cent of the area under field crops. Among the remaining field crops, ginger, groundnut, sesamum, sugarcane and pulses are the most important ones. Ginger is primarily an export crop, and its fortunes fluctuate with the trend of foreign markets. During the recent years, the area under ginger has steadily declined from 30,000 acres in 1950-51 to 22,000 acres in 1958-59. Other field crops, however, have shown significant increases in area over the same period. The rate of increase is the highest for sugarcane, where it rose from mere 2,000 to 22,000 acres—an increase of 1,000 per cent in less than a decade. This is due to the commissioning of a sugar factory (900 tons crushing capacity per day) at Thiruvella in 1954. The output of sugarcane, however, rose by only 775 per cent. The next highest increase has been in pulses where the area rose by 287 per cent between 1951 and 1959. Pulses, with the exception of *tur* (*Cajanus indica*), are now increasingly raised as second or even third crop by availing of the moisture left in the soil after the harvest of paddy. This development owes

[2] [see p. 277, category 116 — Analyst]

[text continues on p. 28]

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MINERAL RESOURCES: SIZE OF DEPOSITS AND EXTRACTION COST

6.5 In the following pages the importance of the mineral resources, the size of the deposits, costs of extraction—and allied factors, as they affect the industrialization programmes for Kerala, are discussed at some length.

Ilmenite

6.6 Foremost among the mineral resources of the State are the beach sand deposits in Quilon district which contain large concentrations of heavy minerals like ilmenite, monazite, rutile, sillimanite and zircon. Some of the ilmenite is of inferior quality due to leucoxenization, particularly along the Neendakara—Azhiyikkal bar.

6.7 The heavy mineral occurrences are of three types:

(*i*) Back beach sand dunes, which form a wasting asset.
(*ii*) Beach washings, which are renewed seasonally during the monsoons.
(*iii*) Sand bar.

In general, the beach washings have a higher content of ilmenite and other heavy minerals than the dunes and the sand bar. The extent of the variations in this respect may be seen in the table below:

	Beach washing (*Per cent*)	*Dunes* (*Per cent*)	*Sand Bar* (*Per cent*)
Ilmenite	75/78	60/70	40
Other heavy minerals	15/20	10/25	—
Quartz	around 50	10/15	60

6.8 Of these, the dune deposits are rapidly being used up; and as for the washings, it is not possible to predict the quantities that are likely to be available from time to time. The main reliance for ilmenite has, therefore, to be placed on the sand bar, the total reserves from which are estimated at 34.08 million metric tons.[1] Another estimate places the reserves at 50 million tons. In addition, there are a few minor occurrences in the lake deposits, and in the interior of the country beyond 500 feet of the shoreline.

6.9 At present, however, nearly half the requirements of raw sand come from the washings and the other half from the dunes. The collection of raw sand is done through contractors who supply the sand to the mineral companies. The dune sand is worked manually with a wooden scraper and the pools are very often not backfilled. Beach washings are merely scraped off the beach wherever they accumulate. The cost of the raw sand from these sources works out to nearly Rs. 8 a ton.[2]

[1] *Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy*, Proceedings of the Second International Conference, Geneva, 1958, p. 106.
[2] *Quartz sand at Pallipuram*—pits mouth value Rs. 1.50 a ton.

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Chapter 11

Manpower and Employment

PART I: MANPOWER

464 128 One of the chief problems of Kerala today is the vast unemployed section of its manpower. An appraisal of the analysis of employment prospects, therefore, becomes very important. The extent of urbanization, sex distribution, the size of the labour force, its rate of participation, and occupational distribution—all these are, therefore, studied in detail in what follows.

162 161 *Urbanization*

11.2 Progress in urbanization in Kerala is less as compared to the country as a whole. Of the total population of Kerala, 13.5 per cent live in urban areas against 17.38 per cent for the whole of India according to the Census of 1951. The degree of urbanization has been progressively increasing over the past few decades. This is shown by the table below which gives the relative rates of growth of the urban and rural population during the period 1921–51. As may be seen, urban population has been growing at a faster rate than the rural population.

MEAN DECENNIAL GROWTH RATE OF POPULATION

(Per Cent)

	1921–30	*1931–40*	*1941–50*
Urban	*27.18*	*23.26*	*29.38*
Rural	*22.85*	*16.53*	*20.12*
Total	*23.31*	*17.27*	*21.88*

N.B.: It may be noted that these figures pertain only to the old Travancore-Cochin State.

[10] Source: *Census of India*, Volume XIII, Travancore-Cochin (Part I, Subsidiary Table).

11.3 During the last decade, that is, 1951–61, urbanization seems to have increased at a somewhat faster rate than in the whole of India. The proportion of population living in urban areas of Kerala grew from 13.05 per cent in 1951 to 15.03 per cent in 1961, whereas in the case of all-India the proportion registered an increase from 17.38 per cent to only 17.84 per cent.[1] In view of the plans for a faster growth of industries,

[1] As pointed out in Chapter 1, too much reliance should not be placed on a comparison of urbanization between 1951 and 1961 since the definition of urban areas during the two Census operations has not been the same.

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some of the concepts used. Working force has already been defined as comprising all those persons who take part in gainful economic activity. Labour force, on the other hand, includes all those members of the population who are already engaged in gainful activity and those who are willing to take up work, generally at the current level of wages. The difference between labour force and the working force gives the magnitude of those who are unemployed and are actively seeking work.

11.24 Although these concepts are quite clear, according to definitions, their application in the context of a backward economy like that of Kerala is fraught with difficulties, which are by now quite well known. The seasonal and non-institutionalized nature of economic activity over a wide sphere of the economy creates problems in the way of precise quantification of unemployment. Statistical accuracy of the figures discussed below is naturally subject to these limitations.

11.25 The main source of information on this subject is the survey of unemployment for Travancore-Cochin and Malabar region carried out by the Statistics Department of the State. The survey was carried out in 1954-55 for the Travancore-Cochin region and in 1956-57 for Malabar. In the absence of figures for the same year, the combined results for the two different years are taken, by and large, to be representative of the situation as it existed during 1955-56.

11.26 Table 60 gives the combined results of the two surveys. According to concepts used in the survey, the total population has been divided into eight activity groups given in column I of Table 60. Persons falling in category 4, 6, 7, that is, (*i*) those having regular employment (*ii*) casual workers and (*iii*) the people in search of employment, make up the labour force. Category (7) includes the unemployed persons. The under-employed section of the population is covered by category (6), i.e., the casual workers.

11.27 According to this survey, labour force as a proportion of total population comes to 32.5 per cent (all-India : 42.2%[1]). The difference between labour force—population ratio as worked out from this survey and that revealed by the NSS for all-India is primarily due to a difference in the concepts used. The Unemployment Survey of Kerala does not include those below 15 years in the labour force. This assumption is quite justified in the case of a State like Kerala where most of the children go to school. In 1955-56, 14.1 lakh children were registered on the rolls of primary schools. These form about 22 per cent of all the children below 15 years of age. Roughly the same proportion of children below 15 years belong to the labour force in the whole of India (according to the NSS Report). It may, therefore, be concluded that there are only stray cases of children below 15 years belonging to the labour force in Kerala.

11.28 Another way of working out the ratio between the labour force and the total population in the State is to calculate the working force on the basis of Census data and to add to it the number unemployed persons as obtained from the Unemployment Survey in Kerala. On the basis of the participation rate of 33.5 per cent, working force during 1956 comes out to 30.3 lakh persons[2]. The number of

[1] National Sample Survey : *Report on Employment and Unemployment.*

[2] The manner of working out the working force for 1956 is explained in Appendix I to Chapter 1.

[See p. 311, category 116 - Analyst]

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TABLE 4

SECTORAL EMPLOYMENT AND LABOUR PRODUCTIVITY IN KERALA (1955-56)

	Working force			*Net value added per worker (Rs.)*	
	Kerala		*India*	*Kerala*	*India*
	Lakhs[a]	*Per cent*	*Per cent*		
1. Primary Sector	27.6	54.9	71.8	625	411
2. Secondary Sector	9.7 (100%)	19.3	9.4	539	1,294
(a) Factory Enterprises	1.7 (17.5%)	..	..	1,059	2,500
(b) Non-factory Enterprises	7.8 (80.4%)	..	..	415	915
(c) Mining	0.2 (2.1%)	..	..	..	..
3. Tertiary Sector	13.0	25.8	18.8	975.4	1,249
TOTAL	*50.3*	*100.00*	*100.00*	*700.00*	*851.00*

[a] Recently, the Statistics Department of the Government of Kerala conducted an Integrated Sample Survey. According to this, estimate of total employment in Kerala during 1957-58 was 46.3 lakhs. The difference between these estimates and the one given above are obviously due to difference in the concepts used. The concepts used here are based on classification adopted in the 1951 Census. For the purpose of this report figures based on the Census data are being used. Since Techno-Economic Surveys of other States have also used Census data for calculation of working force, the uniformity provided by this data possesses the advantage that it allows inter-State comparisons. The alternative estimates of employment structure in Kerala, as revealed by the Integrated Sample Survey are given below:

	(In lakhs)
1. Primary Sector	*24.5*
2. Secondary Sector	*9.6*
(a) Mining	0.3
(b) Factory	1.5
(c) Non-factory	7.4
3. Tertiary Sector	*12.4*
TOTAL	*46.5*